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Sheltered Workshops (I)
Wallin

Evaluating Vocational Potential
Tobias

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Editorial:

The Search For Methods

From the standpoint of maximum development of the abilities of the mentally retarded child toward social sufficiency, we have a long way to go. At this moment, for instance, possible metabolic or endocrinological clues to the causation of the condition in a particular child either are so uncertain, affect so few, or relate so vaguely to the methods at hand by which we attempt this development that the professional worker faced with the task often feels as impotent as ever to accomplish it. Much of the results of research projects in other areas of causation or practice also have not yet been refined enough to make obvious applications to techniques of training. As a consequence, the worker to whom parents and many professional colleagues (as well as some of the children themselves) look for results seems doomed from the start in any effort to approximate hoped-for ultimate attainment levels.

There is a need for much investigative work in the area of techniques of teaching and training these youngsters. Some of it can be done through formal research projects. Much of it may evolve from informal studies, and perhaps most from trial and error attempts of those dealing with the children. Some of the best clues for further investigation should come from the last.

But most of this work is dependent on our understanding of the differences among mentally retarded children. Constant improvement in diagnosis will aid these efforts tremendously. We still need to know how to break up the whole group known as the "mentally retarded" to enough subdivisions so that we begin to be able to understand why some may respond to a method of presentation while others do not.

Ideally, it would be of great help to have a central clearing house, not only for more formal projects which can be easily posted, but also for clues and ideas. However, it would be impossible practically to serve as a collection agency of such clues and ideas from those working directly with mentally retarded children who sense the possibility of certain differences between them but who are in no position to carry out competent investigation.

To be sure, we are in a dilemma. The subject is too large to be seen as a whole and to be logically dissected. Our most acceptable answer seems to lie in the direction of orienting the thinking of all workers concerned, from the lowest to the top scientist, toward the basic problem.

W. J.

Sheltered Workshops For Older Adolescent And Adult Mental Retardates

j. e. wallace wallin

PART I[1]

Historical Perspective

One of the most spectacular developments during the last five years is the establishment of extramural sheltered workshops throughout the country for older adolescent and adult mental retardates. The latest survey by a committee of the National Association for Retarded Children in July, 1957, disclosed a total of 108 such workshops (after eliminating establishments that did not prove to be bona fide workshops). Of these 56 were financially supported in whole or in part by units of the NARC, and 52 by other organizations, public and private. (Frankel, 1958). Prior to 1953 only seven such centers had been found. (Zehnder, 1954). The first was established in San Francisco in 1951, only seven years ago.

But let the reader beware of drawing unjustifiable conclusions from these facts, such as have dotted the pages of some recent historiographies. The recent workshops are not an absolutely new creation in the field of rehabilitation. They are, rather, the culmination of many generations of efforts to habilitate and rehabilitate physically and mentally handicapped children and adults whether handicapped by disease, injury, war, or inheritance. In point of fact, the programs of rehabilitation extend back to the days of the nation's birth in the War of the Revolution. However, the first sheltered workshop, so-called, seems to have been established for the blind in Boston in 1840 by the Perkins Institution for the Instruction of the Blind. The next two were the Pennsylvania Home for Blind Women, 1868, and the Pennsylvania Home for Working Men, 1874, both in Philadelphia. These early workshops probably contained some mental retardates. The workshops for the blind have been greatly expanded in our own day from limited terminal job training in the workshops (e. g., broom, brush, and rug making; Piano tuning) to include contract work in the shops, training in industrial plants, placement in competitive industry, the operation of vending stands or snack bars, preparation for skilled occupations and professional careers, and the like. This service has for long enjoyed ever-increasing government subsidy.

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The residential institutions for mental deficients have almost from the days of their establishment in 1848 given equivalent training in the form of handcraft and occupational training for jobs in the institutions, farm colonies for men and industrial colonies for women, and for occupations in the community for those released with or without supervision or placement. The Rome state institution in New York started colonies for men in 1906 and for women in 1914, and reforestation camps somewhat later. (Wallin, 1924, 1955, 1956). The successes of those released have been numbered in the thousands, although many have failed.

Likewise the special classes for the mentally handicapped in the public schools since their inauguration in Providence in 1896 have afforded a rich variety of diversified handcraft training and sometimes a certain amount of specific occupational training pointed toward competitive job adjustment after release from the special classes. Thousands of such releasees have been successfully absorbed in the competitive labor market, as shown by multitudinous investigations throughout the year. (Wallin, 1955, 1956).

Nor should we omit a cursory reference in this connection to the contributions made by the workshops supported by the Salvation Army and by the Goodwill Industries, some of which have accepted mentally retarded clients, and the pioneering work of the Red Cross Institute in 1919 for crippled and disabled men. (Jacobs, Weingold, 1958).

The greatest upsurge in the programs of habilitation of handicapped children and youth came with the establishment of the Federal Children's Bureau on April, 1912 and of the Federal Office of Vocational Rehabilitation in 1920, both of which have been receiving ever-increasing appropriations for ever-expanding programs. For fiscal 1957-58 the Children's Bureau received the munificent sum of $21,500,000 for maternal and child health activities and $20,000,000 for services for crippled children, or a total of $41,500,000. From the maternal and child health funds one million dollars were allocated in fiscal 1956-57 for the support of specialized diagnostic clinics for young mental retardates and for associated or related activities. A similar allocation was authorized for fiscal 1957-58, and 1,300,000 for fiscal 1958-59. (Children Limited, September, 1958, and letter from the Children's Bureau.) Sixty-six such specialized clinics in 38 states, the District of Columbia, and Hawaii are listed in a bulletin issued by the Children's Bureau (Hormuth, 1954).

The Federal Vocational Rehabilitation Act for handicapped persons of employable age who can be rendered employable, at first limited to the physically handicapped, was expanded in 1943 to include the mentally handicapped. This extension seems to have been viewed at first with resistance, indifference, or misgivings. Very few states took advantage of the Act at first. None did so in 1944. In 1945 only 106 mentally handicapped were rehabilitated; in 1946, 175; and in 1947, 299. In 13 years (up to 1956) the

number of reported rehabilitees was only 5,719, a mere drop in the bucket. However, the year 1957 marked a great upsurge in the number of reported rehabilitiees, 1,094, due undoubtedly to the liberal policy adopted by the Government for the financial support of workshops and rehabilitation programs for the mentally retarded. For fiscal 1957-58 the appropriation amounted to $3,100,000 to the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation for distribution to local communities, and for fiscal 1958-59 $3,600,000, allowing an increase of $500,000 for underwriting new workshops. It would bring us too far afield to give in detail the distribution of these millions, as supplied in a letter from the Office under date of November 21, 1958. The grants are for supplies, equipment, building reconstruction, tuition, research and the like. Of workshops visited the New York installation received about $65,000; Shreveport $24,000; Wilmington $20,000; Chattanooga about $22,000, and Houston a grant for tuition fees.

Magnitude of the Problem

How many adolescent and adult mental retardates require the services of a sheltered workshop? No exact or reliable answer is possible. No reliable state or national survey has been made. (Wallin, 1958). One estimate places the number at 250,000 for the entire country, while another places the figure at "10 persons out of every 1,000 in the general population". (Jacobs, 1958; Lesser, 1958). These are mere estimates based on assumptions regarding criteria of eligibility derived from objective measurements from restricted areas.

Inspection or Evaluation of Workshops

Many of the suggestions and conclusions set forth in this paper come from extensive field trips into many sections of the country, consisting of lecture and consultation trips, and observation, inspections, and in some cases evaluation surveys of centers for the so-called trainable retardates and workshops for the mentally retarded.

The facilities for training and job placement differed greatly in these areas. In job training most of the centers visited had not gone beyond the planning stage. A few had developed occupational training programs in very limited areas. Most were in search of leads and guidance for feasible remunerative employment outlets. A few have made noticeable advances in the training and employment programs since the initial visit and a follow-up inquiry made in the early fall of 1958.[2]

Types of Workshops Available

1. Workshops specifically or exclusively designed for the mentally retarded. The large majority of enrollees are registered in such extramural workshops, the typical NARC installations.

2. Omnibus workshops that afford specialized facilities for many kinds of physically handicapped persons, and also for the mentally handicapped. The Wilmington, Delaware, Opportunity Center is a multitype facility of this kind.

3. Workshops for the Physically handicapped which admit the mentally handicapped but do not afford any special facilities for them. This is perhaps true of some of the rehabilitation centers conducted by the Salvation Army or by the Goodwill Industries. In some of these types of workshops the mentally handicapped are perhaps merely tolerated rather than welcomed. In the first type of workshop the essential eligibility criterion is mental retardation and associated disabilities play a purely secondary role.

Reasons for Specific Workshops for the Mentally Retarded

Many reasons exist of which only three of the most pregnant will be emphasized here.

First and foremost, the exclusion of thousands of children and youth as uneducable on the basis of certain assumptions which have been under challenge for decades.These exclusions furnished the spark that ignited the recent nation-wide parent revolt which started in Cleveland, Ohio, in 1933 —four years after the writer left the state as director of the state Bureau of Special Education—by the Cuyahoga County Council for the Retarded Child, which started the first parent-supported community class for severe mental retardates in Cleveland in 1940. This revolt also led to the initial organization in Columbus, Ohio, in 1950 of a national association of parents now known as the National Association for Retarded Children. This Association and its local chapters in every state in the union (with, perhaps, the exception of Alaska) have waged persistent and relentless campaigns in all sections of the country for the rights of their handicapped off-spring to educational, social, and occupational rehabilitation and for the enactment of legislation toward the realization of that objective. (Wallin, 1955). The parents could not reconcile themselves to having their children doomed to a life of idleness and neglect, which was the inevitable result for the majority of school exclusion.

Second, many parents were reluctant to institutionalize their progeny as long as they could care for them at home. Some would not listen to institutionalization under any conditions. Moreover, institutionalization often meant relegation to waiting lists before admission, which sometimes entailed years of idleness and neglect during the most promising period for habilitation. Faced with these obstacles, parents rose up en masse and demanded training facilities in the home environment and also job opportunities which would insure a measure of social and occupational usefulness for their offspring. The measure of success which they have obtained is phenomenal. (Wallin, 1955).

Third, many parents feared, rightly or wrongly, that if the mentally retarded were entered in the workshops for the physically handicapped they would be discriminated against and receive only perfunctory attention.

Definition of Sheltered Workshop

Before considering its objectives, let us pose a basic question. What is a sheltered workshop? The definition formulated in 1944 by an advisory committee of the U. S. Department of Labor (leaflet of May 31, 1944) reads as follows:

"Sheltered workshop: a charitable, religious, educational, or philanthropic organization or institution conducted not for profit, but for the purpose of carrying out a recognized program of rehabilitation for physically, mentally, spiritually and socially handicapped individuals and to provide such individuals with remunerative employment or other rehabilitating activity of an educational or therapeutic nature."

This definition can be accepted in essence although it could be profitably stripped of superfluous verbiage. Whether or not the enterprise is conducted as a charity is irrelevant from the standpoint of its basic objectives. Moreover, millions of dollars a year from the public tills are now supporting the brunt of the work; and the day may come when these undertakings will be completely publicly supported, although participation from willing volunteers should always be welcomed. Such participation may not only reduce costs but supplies a personality-enriching experience particularly for the parents who are often laboring under the strain of emotional conflicts and deeply-rooted frustrations and anxieties.

The essential element in a definition is the function or purpose inherent in the concept. We can best define a service or an activity in terms of its objectives. What goals or purposes should then, a workshop subserve? Eight specific purposes, some more or less overlapping, will be outlined in brief.

The Manifold Goals of the Workshop for the Mentally Retarded

The discussion of the specific goals will make abundantly clear that the writer is an avowed advocate of the comprehensive type of workshop, one that attempts a comprehensive program of development of all phases of the individual's potentialities, be they physical, educational, psychological, vocational, social, ethical, or spiritual. Obviously the process of job adjustment involves a many-sided program of basic life adjustment. With these clients it is just as important, nay even more important, to develop skills in the art of living, social skills, as it is to develop manipulative dexerity. Moreover, it is much easier to develop sufficient finger skills to earn a living in some routine job than to develop enough social judgment, responsibility, and finesse to enable them to live acceptably or independently in society. Inevitably, some will fail on the job, even in a properly selected

one, not because of the inability to meet the manipulative requirements, but because of numerous social inaptitudes or shortcomings. Among such shortcomings may be mentioned inability to get along with their fellows, to cooperate with other workers, to conform with the regulations, to adjust to the boss, and to be polite, courteous, and friendly.They may have failed to learn the importance of promptness, regularity, and dependability in job performance. Often they do not know how to keep out of trouble and how to safeguard their property and earnings. The inculcation of acceptable social and ethical ideals is not enough. What is needed is practice to the point of habituation of the homely virtues of truth telling, honesty, fairmindedness, respect for the rights of others, unselfish service, and subordination of egoistic desires to the common good—of equal importance in the training of many normals. We must, therefore, afford a comprehensive program of job training and social growth and personality development. So much for generalities. Now for the details.

1. Organize the sheltered workshop as a genuine resource for developing vocational or occupational competence and for paid employment in some area of trained skill along the line of manufacturing goods for sale in the open market, or performing some work under a contract or subcontract, or repairing or salvaging objects in disrepair, or preparing for some kind of service job either in the workshop itself or in homes, institutions, industrial plants, or commercial establishments in the community. Whatever else the workshop may be, it should always be an organized shop for working for wages after training. Several workshops have been visited that had not at the time reached this quintessential. In this area of service the workshop must always meet minimal competitive standards of workmanship if there is to be a market for its goods and services.

Systematic inspection must insure acceptable quality of product. Of course, the factor of speed cannot be disregarded either in piece work, in which the earnings vary with the quantity produced, or in hourly or weekly pay scales, which demand a minimum of output, except in service occupations where weekly or monthly scales usually prevail. The constant obligation of the shop management is to get enough suitable jobs and contracts to keep the workers profitably occupied without discouraging periods of idleness. The fulfillment of this duty requires incessant contacts with business firms or organizations of many kinds that may have temporary or long-term jobs to be done, by personal calls, phone calls, letters, advertising, addressing service clubs, and the like. It is important to seek the cooperation of service clubs, social service agencies, religious organizations, medical, psychiatric, and psychological clinics, and hospitals. Get all possible long-term or permanent contracts, but don't reject temporary, seasonal, or sporadic jobs. It is the obvious function of the workshop to supply the needed tools, equipment, and supplies, although many of the customers will supply the goods or materials they want processed.

2. Train as many clients as possible for employment in competitive jobs in outside industry. That should be the constant ideal. No one should be kept working in a sheltered workshop who can function successfully in the community labor market. This ideal, of course, is not realizable with all applicants either because of low general ability, or limited work skills, or complicating social or personality handicaps. But it was possible with half or more of the applicants in the workshops visited. But the writer saw none of this practice in vogue in these workshops except to a very limited extent in one case. (The situation may be different now in 1960.) The NARC 1957 survey already referred to (Fraenkel, 1958) reported that only 89 workshop clients throughout the country had been placed in outside competitive employment, a preposterously low figure. Why had not this obvious procedure been followed? Possibly because it is a little more difficult to administer, or perhaps because it had not occurred to the administration.

Why is it necessary to emphasize this desideratum? First, it represents a more realistic form of integrating the handicapped into the workaday life of the community and thus avoids the punitive stigma of segregation. Second, jobs in competitive industry will on the average yield higher financial returns to the workers than those in the workshop. The writer would like to go one step further and say that the training wherever possible should be given on the job in industry rather than in the workshops. The reasons are obvious. Training on the job will be far less costly, because industry will ordinarily—perhaps always—supply the needed tools and equipment and supervision of the training by its own bosses or overseers, and the training will be more realistic and effective. Certainly, with staggering national, state, and local debts that may completely destroy our form of free enterprise system, every worker should do his best to eliminate all unnecessary or excessive cost loads.

While advocating training on the job in the plants wherever possible, the writer also believes the trainees should return at intervals to the workshop for supplementary remedial training and personality adjustment. The preferred procedure in many cases would be some sort of rotation system whereby the trainee would spend part of the time in the plant and part time in the workshop—in the factory for the specific job training and in the workshop for the more general habilitation, including speech therapy.

3. Make the workshop more than an aggregation of materials, tools, and machines, or even of living machines in various stages of imperfection. A workshop is above all a buzzing assembly of struggling, pulsating specimen of humanity who are wrestling with serious problems of adjustment to the social order. As already indicated, the deviates have vital individual needs to meet in the direction of socialization and personality integration. Therefore, while the workshop is not primarily a recreation center where the retardates can forgather to fraternize and to have a good time, never-

theless, adequate opportunities should be afforded for worthwhile social contacts that will make for social enjoyment, stabilization, and improvement, such as assemblies, parties, entertainments, week-end dances, games, movies, TV programs, sings, brief breaks for social activities, and similar indulgencies.

Therefore, the training of the trainees to derive satisfaction and enjoyment in living through wholesome leisure-time activities is a not negligible part of work adjustment.

4. Develop all possible communications or language skills, so that the retardates can communicate with associates by word of mouth—and pen—so they can make themselves understood, and participate in conversation and discussion. This will pay off in social acceptance in the home, factory, school, and community, and thereby yield deep personal satisfaction. The ability to employ oral expression may not be of any particular value in many jobs, but it is of vital importance for social adjustment. It is true that this task should have been done in the special classes and in the regular grades before the clients enter the workshop, but many enrollees contacted in the workshops had never been in school and were conspicuously in need of speech development or correction. The program needed must include many approaches, depending on individual requirements: the correction of speech defects and impediments; the improvement of enuciation, pronunciation, and articulation; the overcoming of a great variety of handicaps, such as lisping, lalling, cluttering, mumbling, nasality, talking in monotones and stuttering. Some defects will require the use of tongue and lip gymnastics, the establishment of correct breathing habits, or the application of mental hygiene and psychotherapeutic techniques. Many will require much training in the expression of meanings in clearly enuciated and well modulated words, phrases, and sentences. Certain basic writing habits should be included wherever possible.

The program of speech habilitation will require extensive practice highly motivated by the creation of felt needs in all phases of the rehabilitation program, in order to overcome the painful drudgery involved in the effort to obtain mastery in this difficult field. Effective incentives should be provided by the supplementation of individual exercises with stimulating group procedures. Moreover, all instructors in all phases of the program—reading, spelling, singing, arts, crafts, shop activities, games—should participate in vocabulary building, in the use of the right words clearly pronounced, and in the expression of meanings in sentences.

What results can be anticipated from programs of speech improvement? At one time the outcome was viewed with so much skepticism that many made little effort at speech habilitation. Results are now available from many studies by speech therapists on which to base conclusions. (Wallin, 1955). The success varies greatly according to type, severity, and causation of the disorder, the general level of intelligence, the physical and

mental complications, and the degree of motivation. Some improve little or not at all after many months of skilled speech therapy. Some improve noticeably after prolonged treatment. A few are capable of complete correction. However, all except the lowest group should be afforded some opportunities for speech development under effective motivation before they are dismissed.

5. Develop practical, usable skills so far as possible in the literary fundamentals of the three R's which, after all, constitute basic communication tools in civilized society. This whole program should have been accomplished before the retardate enters the workshop. But the literary lacks have been conspicuous in the shops visited. Today one of the obvious tasks of the workshop is to develop the elementary literary skills needed for adjustment in the habitat in which the clients reside and labor. This includes certain indispensable reading, spelling, writing, and number skills: the instantaneous recognition of letters, words, punctuation marks, figures, basic mathematical signs and their meanings— addition, subtraction, multiplication and division. They should be taught to apprehend street signs, traffic signals, warning and directions signs in factories; bus, house, and phone numbers; days, months, and years; stamps, coins, and bills; to sign their names, to make out bills and receipts. They should be afforded vital practice in number computations in weighing, measuring, buying, selling and keeping records in all sorts of activities. To get results, all the literary instruction must be highly functionalized through the use of concrete activities in plays, games, construction activities, and activity projects. (Wallin, 1955.)

6. Overcome, so far as possible, the great variety of personality maladjustments that militate against the successful life adjustment of many of the mentally handicapped. Such maladjustments, usually acquired through social malconditioning in early life in the home, school, streets, and playcourts, include: anxieties, tensions, timidities, morbid fears, hostilities, mental conflicts, obsessions, compulsions, regressions to lower levels of adjustment, resort to escape or defense mechanisms of many varieties, day dreaming flights for reality, other forms of reality dodging, inhibitions, repressions, emotional disturbances, and the like. The job of parents, teachers, counselors, psychiatrists, psychologists, and social workers is to uncover personality quirks and distempers and attempt to overcome them by psychotherapeutic, mental hygiene, and other procedures (Wallin, 1939; 1949).

All teachers, and parents as well, should have received a basic grounding in the recognition and causation of personality maladjustments and their prevention and treatment by mental hygiene techniques. The child must be freed from shackling complexes, inhibitions, and repressions before he can function normally and creatively in accordance with his inherent potentials. These personality difficulties should have been overcome in early life in the home and in the school, but in many cases they have not been remedied.

7. As an implication of everything thus far emphasized, provide counseling and guidance all along from the very beginning of school entrance—personal, educational, social, and vocational guidance. Programs of guidance and enlightenment should include the parents, who are often bewildered and distressed by confrontation with complicated problems with which they are unable to cope. They are in need of scientific enlightenment on which to base the development of constructive attitudes toward their handicapped children. They are also frequently in need of psychotherapeutic treatment to prevent or overcome frustration—producing maladjustments. (Wallin, 1957). To obtain their interest and active cooperation all along is a basic requirement.

8. Finally, provide discriminative job placement and supportive follow-up. This will prevent many shipwrecks on the job and in the community.

These, then, are eight important specific objectives of a workshop program for the mentally limited. A similar number of specific suggestions for its effective implementation will be published as Part II of this article in The Training School Bulletin, May, 1960.

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1. *This paper has been adapted from lectures before numerous lay and professional audiences. The term mental retardates is used as a synonym for mental deficiency and not in the sense previously used as equivalent to a slighter degree of backwardness, often of a restorable type.*

2. *Acknowledgements are made particularly to Frank A. Borreca, Executive Director of the Houston Council for Retarded Children for pertinent data communicated in a letter under date of October 10, 1958, (the workshop was visted in March, 1957). and to Joseph T. Weingold, Executive Director of the Association for the Help of Retarded Children in New York for printed materials pertaining to the workshop conducted by the Association which was visited in May, 1955.*

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Evaluation of Vocational Potential of Mentally Retarded Young Adults[1]

jack tobias

One of the significant developments in the expansion of services to the mentally retarded during the past decade has been the establishment of sheltered workshops for that large minority who are unable to make a vocational adjustment through usual community resources.

Since 1953 the Association for the Help of Retarded Children has been operating a Sheltered Workshop and Training Center in New York City with capacities for 60 trainees.

Under the terms of a grant from the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation in 1955 the AHRC Workshop undertook such objectives as the identification of factors that inhibit success in rehabilitation and the development of prognostic devices that could shorten the time and improve the accuracy of prediction of employability. Since then approximately 200 retarded young adults over age 17 and ranging in IQ from 26 to 75 have attended the training program for varying periods of time. A rough categorization of those applying for sheltered employment or training reveals the following groups.

A. Readily Placeable. This group is characterized by mild retardation and has generally achieved some academic skills through special classes for the educable retarded. The individuals demonstrate relatively active and positive orientation toward work, fairly mature self-concepts in terms of adult roles, and relative ease in relations with peers and authority figures. They frequently engage in some job hunting activities—usually sporadic and haphazard, and often in areas where success was precluded.

B. Placeable with Special Help. This group is more retarded than Group A in formal intelligence testing and, generally, in academic skills. Persons in this group seem less mature. They are less sure of themselves and demonstrate less initiative. While positively oriented to work, they are more passive and are fearful of accepting the role of an adult wage earner.

C. Sheltered Workers I. This group's most striking characteristic is the disparity between potential and level of functioning. Persons in this group resemble the Readily Placeable (Group A) with respect to IQ and

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academic achievement. Emotional instability, rather low physical energy, and poor socialization are commonly observed. Psychological test patterns often reveal signs of serious emotional disturbance ranging from withdrawal to aggressive verbal behavior and tantrum-like outbursts. This group, like both groups A and B, has no physical stigmata. Most members tend to be "lone wolves" and social isolates even in the Workshop setting. This group shows little capacity for the radical changes that would be necessary before competitive employment could be considered a realistic goal.

D. Sheltered Workers II. The persons in this group are characterized by low intellectual level and tend to operate at close to their maximum potential. Most of them are completely illiterate and, as children, attended classes for the "trainable" rather than the "educable" retarded. Work has more meaning for them as a constructive, satisfying activity than as a symbol of adult status and self-sufficiency.

Rationale for a New Form of Testing

Except for Group D, the clearly terminable group who require a permanent sheltered environment, differentiation between the first three is difficult or impossible from an examination of the objective scores of standardized intelligence and achievement tests. To the degree that much of intelligence testing is an appraisal of problem-solving behavior the scores are useful in identifying the group that can be served by the Workshop. Since, however, industrial usefulness in an advanced technology most frequently precludes problem-solving ability, these test results cannot be expected to show a perfect relationship with employability. By definition, retardation assumes a slow rate of learning. Standard tests that measure one-trial learning will reinforce the initial diagnosis of retardation without supplying the information more necessary for the determination of vocational feasibility. Proper evaluation of the retarded seems to require a form of testing that permits observation of more than single-trial learning. It is relevant in the evaluation of readiness for work to investigate the effect of repetitive learning experiences on efficiency and productivity. Generalizing from results of a single-trial test for the mentally retarded eliminates from consideration a potentially important factor—the very substantial improvement that frequently follows extended practice. Ultimate efficiency appears as a more significant factor than speed of learning in those vocations in which retarded persons hope to find employment.

In an attempt to find instruments that could refine predictions about suitability for competitive employment a number of devices were selected.

The Evaluation Tests did not presume to measure directly those personality variables that influence employability. It was assumed that the extended period of testing, stretching over many days, would permit such factors as motivation, distractability, low-frustration tolerance, excessive orderliness, marked dependency, etc. to operate. If these factors were suffi-

ciently serious to hamper efficient productivity, the scores would reflect the difficulty and provide cues for special training and therapeutic intervention. Since vocational suitability is inextricably linked with personality, this diagnostic process is concerned with identifying those personality difficulties which appear to limit vocational performance.

The Evaluation Tests

Seven work samples were tentatively selected as evaluation tests from among the few hundred contract jobs that had been performed in the Workshop. These work samples tap manipulative skills requiring varying degrees of manual dexterity, visual-motor coordination, ability to follow directions, the ability to follow a sequence in multiple, ordered operations, degrees of depth perception and spatial relationships, and the ability to count incidental to completing tasks.

1. Folding table cloths. Fifty quilted plastic bridge table covers measuring 36″ by 36″ when flat are presented. They are to be folded in a perscribed manner to measure 7″ by 15″. When properly folded they are inserted singly into paper bands. Score: Total time required to complete the task.

2. Sorting buttons. A box containing buttons of same color, size and shape but differing only in type of design on face are presented. A two way sort is required since there are only two different designs. The trainee is shown the difference and given two empty containers into which he places the sorted buttons. He is *not* instructed beyond this. Score: Total time required to sort correctly one pound of buttons. (We observe his ability to improvise an efficient method of sorting, i. e.; Does he sort one by one or does he spread a larger number on work table, and separate buttons of one design so that remainder is necessarily of the other type?)

3. Lacing display cards. Fifty heavy cardboard display cards measuring 12½″ by 20″ are presented. Each card has rows of holes punched, through which metal tipped elastic cords are to be laced over-under, in specified manner. The metal tips are designed to facilitate insertion and are also miniature latches to provide a self-locking device. Score: Total time required to lace correctly 50 cards. (Observations are made on trainee's ability to:

a. Coordinate eye and hand movements;

b. Use two hands efficiently—one for holding cord, the other for lacing;

c. Follow proper sequence;

d. Complete the lacing without rotating the card from one side to the other; from one hand to the other.)

4. Pistol key-chain assembly. Materials are six interlocking colored plastic parts to form six-shooter, approximately 1½″ long when assembled; a clear lucite rectangular piece approximately ¾″ by ¼″ with hole at one end; beaded metal key chain with snap lock device on one end, 3″ long. The pistol must be assembled in a specified manner in order for the six parts to lock. The chain must be threaded through both the assembled pistol and the lucite identification piece before it is snapped shut. Score: Total time required to complete 50 units. (Observations are made on ability to:

a. Handle small materials using both hands;

b. Coordinate eye and hand movements.)

5. Puzzle assembly. Fifty plastic frames, 3″ by 3″, together with colored plastic squares ½″ by ½″ are presented. Each frame holds 15 squares which interlock on tongue and groove principle. Score: Total time required to fill 50 frames. (Observations are made on ability to:

a. Match tongue and groove;

b. Handle small materials using both hands.)

6. Packaging poker chips. Cardboard boxes and trays of white, red, and blue poker chips are presented. A jig which holds 25 chips is used to provide automatic counts. Each box is to hold 4 stacks of 25 each—2 white, 1 red, and 1 blue. When packed, flaps and ends of boxes are tucked in. Score: Total time required to pack 50 boxes of chips. (Observations are made on ability to:

a. Discriminate colors, red, white, and blue;

b. Handle small materials using both hands;

c. Use counting jig.)

7. Racking for electroplating. Fifty metal barrettes (hair ornaments) are to be placed in a specified way on metal rack, shaped like single clothes hanger. (This rack when completed is inserted into tank of plating solution in the electroplating process). Score: Total time required to complete 6 racks, each holding 50 barrettes. (Observations are made on ability to:

a. Rack small metal parts to face in the same direction;

b. Coordinate eye and hand movements;

c. Count to 50;

d. Handle small materials using both hands.)

Test Administration

The Evaluation Tests are administered under conditions that are typical of normal Workshop activity. Instead of being isolated with the Examiner in an office environment, the testee follows the prescribed routines while seated next to people who are engaged in different, but similar work activities. The usual distractions of a busy atmosphere with attendant conversation, movement, and orders irrelevant to the testee are permitted to operate. Because more than one person may be undergoing testing during the same period, it has been impractical to adhere to a rigid sequence in

administering different sections of the tests. The trainee may start with any of the seven devices used in evaluation.

Under fairly standardized conditions of instruction, the supervisor demonstrates the required task and gives verbal directions to emphasize the special precautions necessary to avoid errors. The testee is then permitted to attempt a sample unit. Additional assistance and supervision is offered if it appears to be required. Instruction is continued until the testee is able, without help, to produce a perfect sample. The period of instruction may vary considerably as a function of intellectual level of the testee, the complexity of the task and the personality variables affecting learning from an authority figure. (Some of the more difficult evaluation devices have never been mastered by trainees who fall below the levels required for competitive employment).

Only after he has demonstrated sufficient learning to complete a unit without any assistance is the testee permitted to start. Without further supervision he is required to complete the allotted number of units of which the test is composed. Completion of a standard number of units is considered as a single trial and the time taken is recorded. The time is then translated into a percentile score. On the same, or succeeding day, another evaluation device is introduced and practiced under the same general principals until all seven tests are administered. It is not necessary for the testee to attempt the entire battery before he is offered second trials on the previously learned tasks.

Second trials are conducted approximately two days after the initial session. The two trials are always separated not only by a lapse of time but by occupation with different work. The intervening time combines paid activity for work on a contract operation and/or the practice of some other evaluation tasks. Second trials are exact repetitions of the procedure on first trials with the exception that retraining is rarely necessary. The testees are provided with materials that are now familiar to them and they are usually able to complete the process on command. Second trials are timed in the same manner for all seven tasks.

Third trials are processed in an identical manner and after an additional two day lapse between sessions. Frequently the administration of the entire battery may stretch over a period of three weeks. The time score of the third trials is considered most relevant. It represents the productive efficiency attained after repeated practice and learning sessions.

Time scores for each of the trials reveals individual rates for initial learning (i.e. first trial performance); rate of improvement; and ultimate efficiency (i.e. third trial performance). The standardization of all seven tasks on a broad sample of a retarded population permits comparison of each individual with the group of which he is a member by virtue of his intelligence test score. This eliminates the serious limitation of most aptitude

tests where the normative data is gathered from a population that excluded retarded individuals.

The Standardization Population

The population on whom the Evaluation Tests were standardized consists of 60 young adults between the ages of 17 and 25 who were referred to the A.H.R.C. Workshop because of inability to make a vocational adjustment in the community. With only a few exceptions the referrals were consecutive admissions of clients sent by the local Division of Vocational Rehabilitation. They constitute a representative cross section of those retarded people who are considered feasible for employment by this state agency. All the individuals were adjudged to be retarded on the basis of intelligence test results. Although other handicaps were sometimes present, retardation was considered the primary disability. IQ's ranged from a low of 42 to a high of 83.

Table 1

Distribution of IQ Scores for Standardization Population

IQ	Number
40-49	3
50-59	13
60-69	24
70-79	18
80-83	2
Total	60

Mean	66.5
Median	64.5
Standard Deviation	8.8

Scoring

By the use of percentile ranks, testees are assigned a score for each task on a scale of from 1 to 10.

Example: A trainee who completes 50 Pistol Assemblies in 62 minutes falls in a group composed of those who required between 58 to 65 minutes to complete this task. He receives a percentile rank of 7 for this test. In the same manner his score is tabulated for each of the other six tasks and a total weighted score is computed by adding each of the individual scores. The possible range of Total Scores is from a low of six (indicating consistently poorest performance equal to the lowest group in all the tasks) to a high score of 60, indicating consistently superior work. Time considerations have recently prevented the administration of the entire battery and the Poker Chip Test has been eliminated.

The calculations and scores in Table 3 were based on achievements for the third trial of each of the standard tasks.

Table 2

Time and Point Scores for Evaluation Tasks

	Sorting Buttons	Racking Barrettes	Lacing Cards	Puzzle Assembly	Folding Covers	Pistol Assembly
Points	Minutes	Minutes	Minutes	Minutes	Minutes	Minutes
10	Under 33	Under 22	Under 71	Under 47	Under 14	Under 41
9	33-37	23-26	72- 78	48-51	15-17	42- 50
8	38-41	27-28	79- 89	52-55	18-19	51- 57
7	42-45	29-31	90-101	56-59	20-21	58- 65
6	46-49	32-35	102-107	60-63	22-24	66- 73
5	50-53	36-40	108-114	64-68	25-27	74- 79
4	54-58	41-43	115-121	69-73	28-29	80- 87
3	59-67	44-48	122-133	74-80	30-33	88- 94
2	68-79	49-58	134-147	81-91	34-41	95-102
1	Over 80	Over 59	148 and Over	Over 92	Over 42	Over 103
	M = 51.1	M = 37.5	M = 106.8	M = 65.4	M = 25.5	M = 71.8
	Md. = 48.6	Md. = 34.9	Md. = 107.2	Md. = 63.2	Md. = 24.5	Md. = 72.5
	S.D. = 16.35	S.D. = 13.45	S.D. = 29.6	S.D. = 17.76	S.D. = 9.78	S.D. = 22.72

Table 3 is used to illustrate the method. Cases A and B are retarded girls of the same age and almost identical IQ as measured by the WAIS.

Case B left the Workshop for private employment as a factory packer after four months of training. Case A has made a good social but poor vocational adjustment to the Workshop and is still in training after six months. The prognosis for competitive employment appears poor.

Table 3

Individual Scoring Records

CASE	A	B	C	D
IQ	68	69	66	62
Folding	5	9	9	5
Lacing	5	9	2	4
Pistol Assembly	7	9	8	10
Racking Barrettes	7	9	9	3
Puzzle Assembly	6	9	3	9
Sorting Buttons	7	9	8	1
Total Score	37	54	39	32

Relationship of Evaluation Tests to Intelligence Tests

The rationale for developing the Evaluation Tests hypothesized that they would provide information of significance in determining vocational feasibility that was not accessible from IQ scores. All the subjects in the standardization group were routinely tested with the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale during the same period in which they were taking the Evaluation Tests. It was possible to complete a correlation study between the WAIS Full Scale IQ and the Total Evaluation Score. The product-moment r equals .427 and is significant at better than a .01 level of confidence. Additional correlations between IQ and ratings on each of the separate tasks were also computed. Table 4 summarizes the correlations that were found.

Table 4

Correlation of Evaluation Tasks with IQ

Evaluation Task	r with IQ	Significance
Folding	.27	.05
Racking Barrettes	.43	.01
Button Sorting	.08	No. sig.
Lacing	.07	No. sig.
Pistol Assembly	.34	.02
Puzzle Assembly	.28	.05

Four of the seven Evaluation Tests proved to be related to level of intelligence: (a) folding of table pads; (b) racking barettes; (c) pistol assembly; (d) puzzle assembly. IQ was a far less significant factor on three of the other tasks: (a) racking pokerchips; (b) sorting buttons; (c) lacing display cards.

It seems likely that work of too simple a nature eliminates the element of challenge and permits such factors as fatigue, distractability and boredom to outweigh the possible advantages of higher intelligence. Button sorting and lacing, two of the tasks least related to intelligence, have this quality of excessive simplicity. The profiling of an intellectually superior testee who falls far below his own levels on card-lacing and button-sorting shows insufficient motivation to maintain productivity during periods of work that he finds unstimulating. Test scores with less variability suggest a greater willingness to exert effort during most conditions that will approximate those in competitive employment.

Although there is a significant relationship between intelligence and productivity, this relationship is never so close as to permit the prediction of any individual's performance from a knowledge of the IQ alone. One can predict that a less retarded group will out-produce a more severely retarded group. On some isolated tasks there is not even this limited relationship. For these jobs other factors become more important than the intelligence variable. The score sheet of Case C 18 year old male, illustrates high variability in subtest scores. His Workshop activities, after months of training, correspond to the indications of the Evaluation Tests. Although he is frequently productive and concerned with doing a good job, he is just as often lackadaisical and uninvolved with the demands of a work environment.

Case D a 23 year old female trainee who manifested even greater discrepancies in subtest scores, is seemingly passive and somewhat withdrawn. Six months of Workshop training was ineffective in helping her to make a vocational adjustment and she is currently unemployed.

Relationships Between Evaluation Tests

The different Evaluation Tests seem to require a wide range of different abilities and manipulative skills. It was of considerable interest to determine whether there was a generalized factor that promoted overall productivity in all given assignments or whether specific abilities limited efficiency to one or two special areas. Since each of the trainees involved in the study completed all seven tests, correlations between each test and every other test were computed.

Table 5 shows that most of the Evaluation Tests have a definite relationship to each other and that people who do well on one task tend to do relatively well on the others. Both Pistol Assembly and Puzzle

Table 5

Intercorrelations of Evaluation Tasks

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Folding	Lacing	Pistol Assembly	Racking Barrettes	Poker Chips	Puzzle Assembly	Sorting Buttons
1. Folding							
2. Lacing	.50						
3. Pistol Assembly	.39	.56					
4. Racking Barrettes	.18	.18	.46				
5. Poker Chips	.15	.15	.52	.08			
6. Puzzle Assembly	.13	.36	.62	.56	.49		
7. Sorting Buttons	.21	.19	.48	.39	.36	.32	

All coefficients of correlation above .3 are significant at the .05 level.

Assembly relate most highly with other tasks, as well as to each other, and could be used by themselves as an abbreviated form of Evaluation. Folding Table Cloths and Lacing showed the least relationship with other devices and seem to measure some characteristics not tapped by most of the other tasks.

Despite the seeming diversity of skills required, the test scores tend to repeat each other for any one individual. A common factor seems to be present in most of the tests. Adequate performance on any of the standard tasks is usually indicative of similar performance on other tasks. There is provided, however, an opportunity for important qualitative observations of work methods. This comparison of each subject's performance with that on his previous trial supplies useful clues about the individual's deficits and strengths that are necessary for a full scale evaluation.

Improvement with Practice

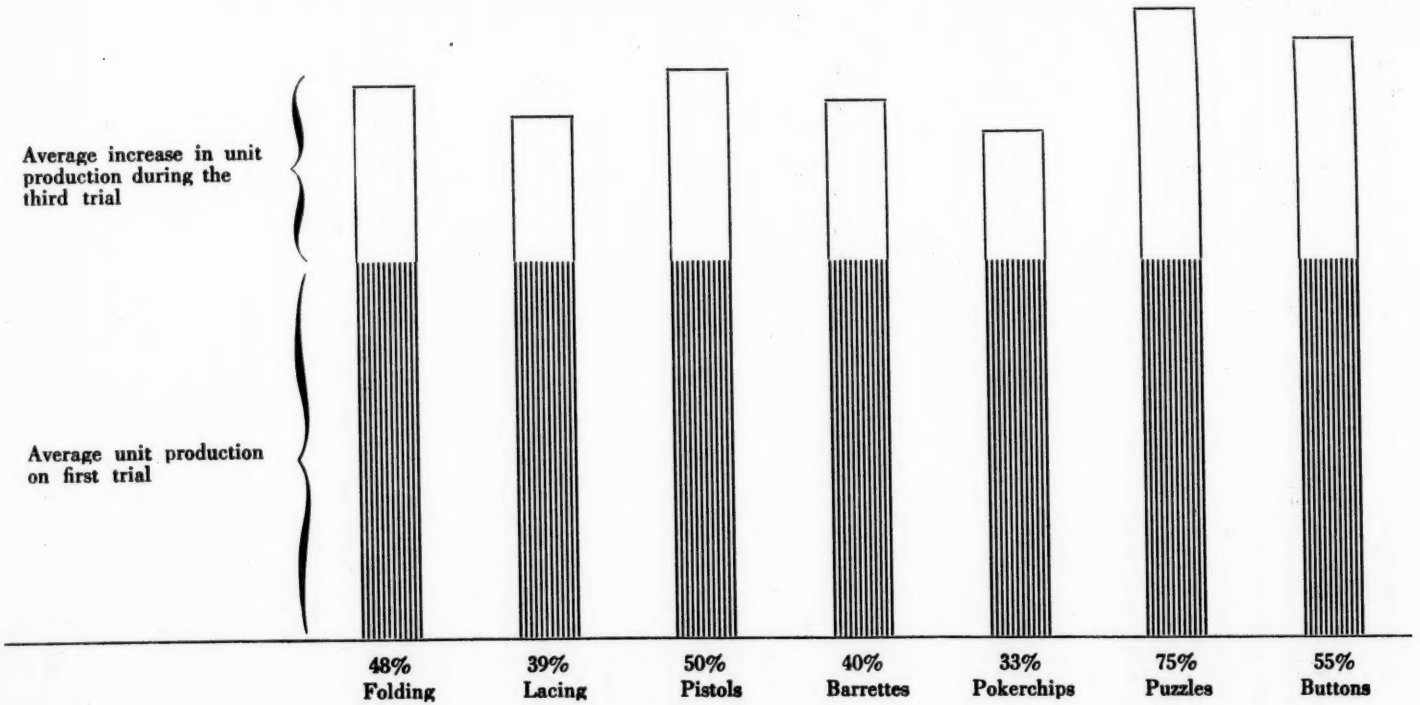
An important feature of Evaluation Testing that distinguishes it from most forms of intelligence tests is the opportunity it provides for repeated trials and scores on the same task. Whereas most tests become invalid if the subject has been permitted to practice with the items involved, the Evaluation Tests are interested in precisely this aspect. By repeating each task on three occasions it is possible to compare each trainee with himself and to compute his rate of improvement with continued practice.

An experiment conducted in the Workshop and reported previously, (A.H.R.C., 1956), showed that retarded young adults demonstrate a regular and continuous improvement with extended practice. Important individual differences in the rate of improvement, independent of the speed of initial learning, were observed. The rate of improvement seemed to be an important prognostic indicator both of adjustment to competitive employment and to effective productivity in a sheltered facility. As part of the study involving the standardization of the Evaluation Tests, average rates of improvement were computed. The figures used were the percentage decrease in time taken to complete a unit of work for the third trial as compared to the first trial. Figure 1 shows the average improvement of the standardization group.

Additional objective information about each testee is made available by comparing his rate of improvement with the average rate for a retarded population.

Figure 1

INCREASE IN PERFORMANCE ON EVALUATION TESTS AFTER PRACTICE



Relationship Between Intelligence and Rate of Improvement

Although the group average of all the testees showed a consistent increase in productivity with continued practice, individual scores varied within a wide range. It was felt that intelligence might be related to the rate of improvement. A correlation study to investigate this hypothesis was conducted. Since the Pistol Assembly Test was related most closely with all the other tests, it was chosen as the criterion task. A correlation between the IQ and the percentage decrease of time taken to complete 50 Pistol Assemblies between first and third trials was made for 46 subjects. The r was—.07 and was not significant.

The results of this study indicate that there was no relationship between the level of intelligence (within the retarded range) and the percentage of improvement with practice. The more severely retarded subjects demonstrated as good a capacity to improve with practice as upper-level retardates. The initial speed with which a task is learned influences productivity for only a brief period of time.

The Validity of the Evaluation Tests

The Evaluation Tests are useful only to the degree to which they can be used for prediction. Ideally, the best criterion would be the records of those testees who find and hold a job in competitive industry. The relatively brief period encompassed by the study has not permitted the accumulation of a sufficiently large sample of such individuals as to be statistically valid. Another possible criterion is the vocational adjustment of the testees to the Sheltered Workshop. Since all earnings in the Workshop are based on piece work rates, the average hourly wages of the trainees reflect their skills and motivation for productive labor.

The tasks used for Evaluation do not form part of the daily shop activities. The characteristics common to both daily assigned work and Evaluation Tests were in such details as relative simplicity and rote processes. These characteristics are shared by many industrial operations for which the Evaluation Tests may be considered prognostic indicators of efficiency. The Tests do not presume to measure success in service occupations or agricultural work except as they are useful in revealing relevant personality traits.

For the purpose of checking the validity of the Evaluation Test Scores the average hourly earnings of 49 trainees based on a month of work was computed. The average wage was then correlated with the Evaluation Score and demonstrated a very strong relationship. ($r=.52$. Significant at better than the .01 level of confidence).

The testees who ranked highest on the Evaluation Tests tended to earn the most when paid on a piece-work basis. The usefulness of the Evaluation Scores as prognostic indicators of vocational adjustment as measured by Workshop earnings was adequately demonstrated.

The Value of the IQ in the Prognosis of Vocational Adjustment

The specialized Evaluation Tests would have little merit if the same information could be achieved from an individual intelligence test requiring far less time and effort. The same criterion used in validating the Evaluation Tests, average hourly earnings based on a month of Workshop employment, was used in computing the relationship to IQ. The statistical analysis, based on 55 subjects, showed that the relationship between IQ and earnings was small and not statistically significant. ($r=.14$).

The IQ alone was a far less valid measure of vocational adjustment than the Evaluation Score.

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1. *This study was partially supported by a grant from the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation for Special Project #11, "Specialized Rehabilitation Training for Mentally Retarded Young Adults."*

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The School Psychologist—Image and Role in Process[1]

robert m. allen

In another context the writer had occasion to speak his thoughts on the role of the school psychologist (Allen, 1958). This culminated in a discussion of the obfuscation of the school psychologist.

The role of the school psychologist is not clear. It ranges along a continuum from the psychologist as the substitute punishing figure (because the classroom teacher is unable to cope with problems of discipline), through the psychometric characterization in which the psychologist's role is very limited and seldom goes beyond the testing phase, to the less frequent picture of the psychologist as one who provides a constructive and fairly well rounded service. In this latter instance the psychologist brings his clinical training, theoretical background, and research to the solution of extra-clinical educational problems. These roles stem from many sources including the school psychologist's own definition of his job.

To this day the image of the school psychologist is clouded by the many faceted perceptions of the classroom teacher, the principal, the school board, and the state departments of education. Further confusion is engendered by the practice in many school systems of having classroom teachers and others administer and interpret psychological and diagnostic tests as part of their duties. Out of this emerges a picture of the school psychologist as the only member of the educational team whose functions may be parceled out to others in the school setting.

Subsequent inquiry, reading, and conferences with knowledgeable people have yielded supplementary thoughts. It would appear that the fluid character of the school psychologist image is, in effect, a healthy phenomenon. Many changes have occurred in education since Witmer opened the first psychological clinic at the University of Pennsylvania. Educators have come to appreciate that teaching and learning are not simple processes; and that education is not only for the able. If the educator must take account of motivation, development, emotionality, as well as ability, then he must turn to the expert for help in discovering the child as he is and how, and to what extent, he may be moved in the desirable direction. New educational concepts widened the vista of the pupil personnel services team. With particular reference to the school psychologist, the demands for more varied services beyond IQ testing became inevitable. It is for this reason that the

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as yet unstructured, uncrystallized, and therefore "unbrittle" image of the school psychologist is a healthy phenomenon.

As a clinician the school psychologist accepts a referral because of a problem that has become manifest in the school or at home. This acceptance may initiate a chain of actions consisting of few or many links depending on the nature of the problem, the service role as defined by the school system, the facilities available, the training and experiential background of the psychological personnel, the receptivity of the school persons to the services of the psychologist, and the length of the waiting list. But the school psychologist must go beyond the three functions of prevention, diagnosis, and remediation. It is the clinician's responsibility to help the teacher understand the normal and the deviant child, to acquaint the classroom teacher with learning processes and how these are applicable to specific situations, and to relate curriculum construction to developmental psychology.

An area that has not been considered to this point is the research role of the clinically oriented school psychologist. A discussion of this professional task cannot be restricted to what is solely a clinician's obligation as distinct from an educator's responsibility. Seashore (1958) in a recent issue of *Exceptional Children* stated that the new conception of the school psychologist called for ". . . . a comprehensive person, competent to deal with many kinds of personal, social, and educational problems. This larger role has a bearing on the kinds of research which school psychologists undertake themselves and the projects to which they may contribute in cooperation with other investigators." He continues with a plea for the school psychologist to interest himself in a broader kind of research which would answer pertinent broad questions rather than highly esoteric and specialized bits of trivia.

A verbal picture of how the expanded role of the school psychologist emerged in an actual setting and the attendant issues is contained in a letter from Dr. Morris Krugman, Assistant Superintendant of New York City Schools in charge of the Bureau of Educational and Vocational Guidance, to the writer. Dr. Krugman is an excellent historian of this movement because of his many years as director of the Bureau of Child Guidance in New York City. In this position he has contributed significantly to the prestige of the school psychologist as a member of the educational team. He writes in part:

"In the New York City school system we first engaged school psychologists about forty years ago. Their job was very clearly limited to the psychometric examination of children to be placed in classes for the mentally retarded. When the Bureau of Child Guidance was established in our schools with the clinical team of psychologist, psychiatrist and social workers in 1931, we actually had two different kinds of psychologists—those do-

ing the special psychometric examination previously mentioned and clinical psychologists in the Bureau of Child Guidance. About ten years later both groups of psychologists were merged and both placed in the Bureau of Child Guidance to broaden their scope and to do a more professional and more clinical psychological job. As the psychological field broadened, the functions of the psychologist changed from psychometric work to broader psychological diagnosis particularly with the development of projective methods. Therapeutic functions, mental hygiene education of teachers and parents, and consultation with educators were gradually added to the responsibilities of the psychologist.

"As against this broadening of function, however, we find tremendous pressures from the community and the schools to examine more and more children psychologically because of special needs and problems. At the present time, therefore, the Bureau of Child Guidance psychologists are caught in the middle of professional pressures and personal desires to do a broad psychological job as against community pressures to diagnose as many children as possible as rapidly as possible. I would say that this conflict is in a stalemate at the moment, and how it will be resolved is anybody's guess."

One fact stands out, the school psychologist has not yet demonstrated the optimal contribution of his science and art in the school setting; and until he does, it would be better to encourage a flexible definition that can yield reasonably well to the modifications in educational philosophy and practices.

A retrospective view of the pertinent literature on school psychology and the school psychologist points emphatically to the clinician role as the major aspect of the school psychologist image, but it is not the only one. The problem of meeting service needs may be temporarily solved in some school systems by dichotomizing between the psychometrician and the clinician. However, the demand for high quality services will eventually impose upon this profession maximal training to the doctoral level. As a specialist the school psychologist deals with the specific child and his problem, interprets the results of his evaluation of the total child and coordinates the cooperative remedial program undertaken in the school setting. As a generalist he evaluates the situation and decides whether a referral is necessary to some other agency or bureau within the school system or outside of it.[2]

To deal effectively with the child on a diagnostic, evaluative, and therapeutic level he needs to be skilled in the principles and techniques of the clinical psychologist. This means more than a knowledge of psychometrics. It calls for training in psychological evaluation, counseling, prevention, and mental hygiene. To deal effectively with the child on the remedial level

the psychologist must be prepared to select, administer, and interpret educational tests. The interpretation must be addressed to the teacher, and if necessary to the parents. All of this needs to be accomplished in a framework of educational reality.

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1. *A shorter version of a paper given at the Symposium on The Role of the School Psychologist sponsored by the Florida Association of School Psychologists, St. Augustine, Florida, April, 1959.*

2. *Taken from the brochure of the Joint Committee on School Psychology Program of The School of Education and the Department of Psychology, University of Miami.*

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THE TRAINING SCHOOL

The Training School at Vineland, New Jersey, is one of the world's oldest research and demonstration centers for the care and treatment of the mentally retarded. Founded in 1888, it is a private and non-profit organization.

From its Research Laboratory have come such pioneering works as the Vineland Social Maturity Scale, The Kallikak Study, and the American adaptation of the Binet-Simon Intelligence tests. Current research studies are being supported by the National Science Foundation; the National Institute of Mental Health; and Riker's Laboratories, a private pharmaceutical firm.

As a demonstration center the Training School at Vineland receives some 5000 visitors annually who observe the techniques and methods of treatment and training for the mentally retarded.

On the School's 1600 acres in the rolling farm land of Southern New Jersey is located every possible facility for care of the individual. Hospital, school, chapel, private lake, swimming pools, greenhouse, working farm land, and the many home-like cottages where the children live combine to create an atmosphere of happiness. Here, each child is an individual and his development is carefully nurtured by a complete professional staff along lines best suited to his needs and future capabilities. In line with this, the Training School offers six comprehensive programs for the mentally retarded and those functioning at a retarded level:

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